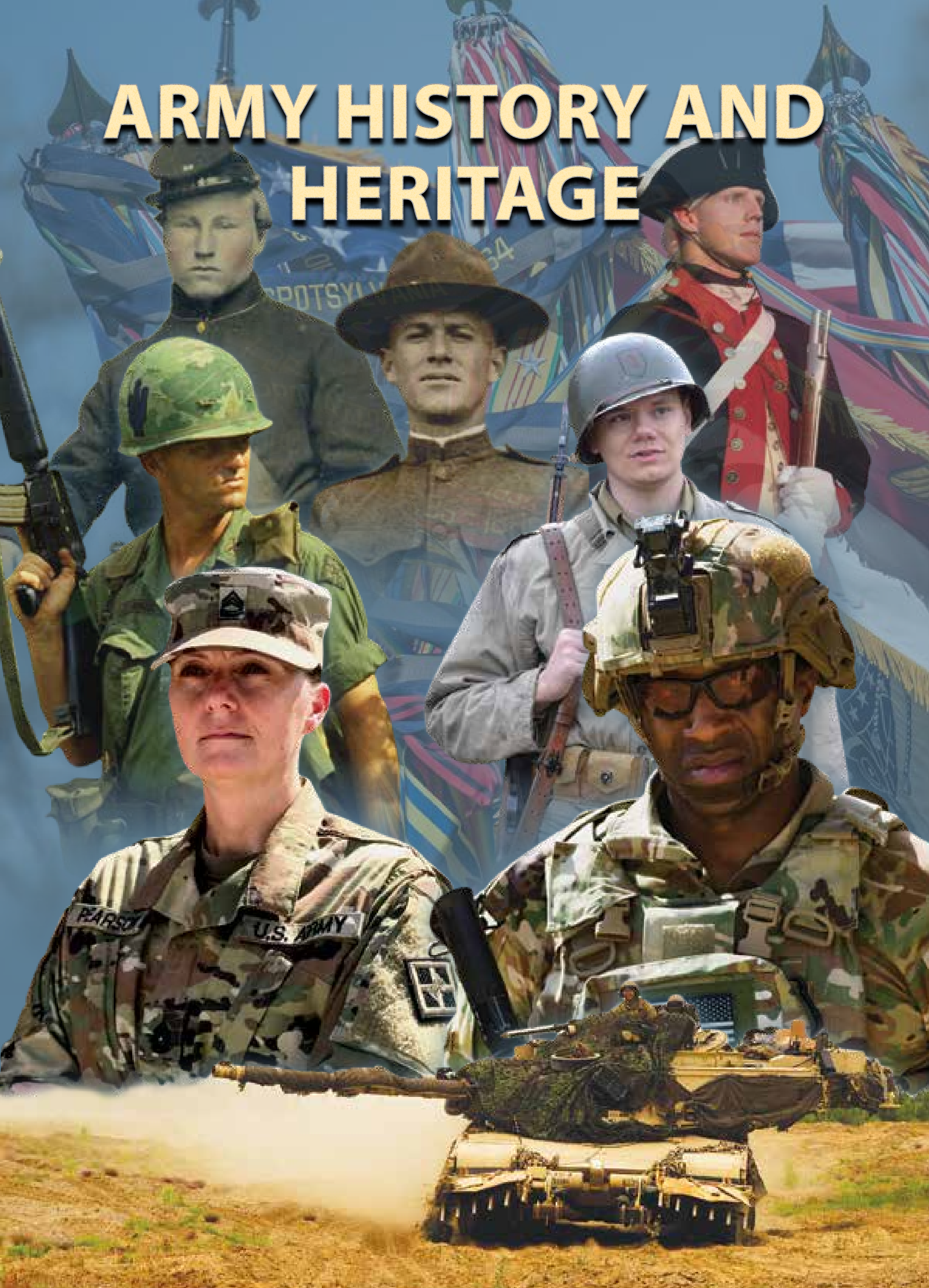
ARMY HISTORY AND HERITAGE



General Paul E. Funk II, United States Army

ARMY HISTORY AND HERITAGE

Foreword by General Paul E. Funk II, United States Army

Center of Military History
United States Army
Washington, D.C. 2022

FOREWORD

This book is dedicated in honor and in memory of General William W. Hartzog, the ninth commanding general of the Training and Doctrine Command and a historian at heart. He wrote the initial version of this book, *American Military Heritage*, "to provide a reference that could help drill instructors and other Army leaders instill an appreciation for the lore and traditions that make up the Army's rich heritage."

The study and understanding of military history and appreciation of our proud and rich heritage are critical to personal and professional growth for soldiers. They are the foundation that allows us to expand our expertise within the profession of arms. They lay the cornerstone for our personal contribution to our Army, and give us the means to leave it in a better place than we found it.

We stand on the shoulders of the exceptional men and women, who, for nearly 250 years, have made history and forged our shared heritage. Our history is our incredible legacy. It connects the current generation of soldiers to our departed but not forgotten brethren. It demonstrates that no matter how much time has passed, we continue to be the most lethal and powerful Army in the world. History reminds us that we serve for something far greater than ourselves and that we are willing to endure incredible sacrifices for the love of our great nation.

A professional Army continuously strives for excellence and self-improvement. Learning from significant historical events can be painful, informative, and incredibly inspirational. Let us strive to learn from the lessons of those proud warriors who came before us, so that we never need to relive the trials of the past.

Victory Starts Here!

Fort Eustis, Virginia
7 January 2022

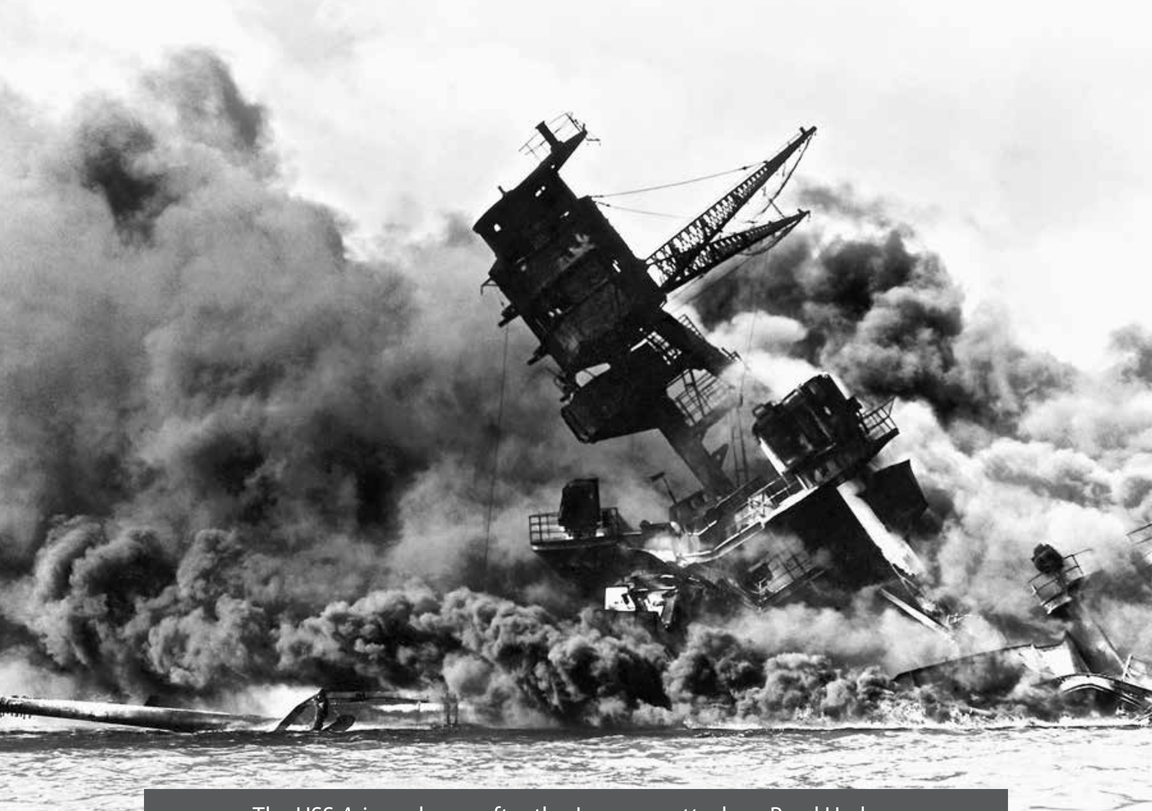
GENERAL PAUL E. FUNK II
17th Commanding General,
U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command

GLOBAL WAR: THE U.S. ARMY AND WORLD WAR II, 1939–1943

by Mark L. Bradley and David W. Hogan Jr.

When Adolf Hitler's armies invaded Poland in September 1939, the United States declared that it would remain neutral. Most Americans viewed the conflict between the Anglo-French Allies and the Germans as just another European quarrel. Disillusioned by the results of American participation in World War I, they were leery of intervention. The Army had only 190,000 soldiers in 6 skeleton infantry divisions, 1 small horse cavalry division, an air corps, and support units. Its World War I–era weapons were obsolete, and lack of funds left soldiers with insufficient training. During the fall and winter of 1939–1940, Army Chief of Staff General George C. Marshall was able to obtain some personnel increases in the size of the Regular Army and National Guard. However, his prescient warning in February 1940—"If Europe blazes in the late spring or summer, we must put our house in order before the sparks reach the Western Hemisphere"—fell on deaf ears in Congress and the White House.

Yet the sparks did reach the United States that spring with the German offensive in May 1940 and the shock of the subsequent fall of France. Suddenly, only Great Britain and an ocean stood between the United States and the triumphant Nazi war machine. President Franklin D. Roosevelt stepped up all possible aid to Britain short of war. He traded fifty old destroyers to the British to assist with convoys and used the Lend-Lease program to "loan" weapons and materiel to the British when they ran out of purchasing funds. He even ordered the U.S. Navy to escort North Atlantic convoys in the summer and fall of 1941. When Germany invaded the Soviet Union in June 1941, he extended Lend-Lease to the Russians. He also instituted sanctions against Japan's expansion in mainland Asia. In August 1940, Congress authorized the president to call up eighteen National Guard divisions for a year, and in September, it passed a Selective Training and Service Act—the nation's first peacetime



The USS *Arizona* burns after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor.
(*National Archives*)

draft—allowing the armed forces to induct 900,000 men for one year. The Army drew on its prewar mobilization planning to collaborate with the Navy, businesses, and other government agencies to mobilize the nation's resources and make it into the "Arsenal of Democracy." Racing against time, the Army also sought to transform its organization, weaponry, and practices so it could stand up to the Germans' revolutionary use of tanks, aircraft, and motorized infantry in their blitzkrieg or "lightning war." The Army developed new tanks, trucks, planes, and airborne units. During the summer and fall of 1941, it also conducted large-scale field maneuvers in Louisiana and the Carolinas. The initial draft, however, required only a single twelve-month term for service members. In August 1941, the House of Representatives approved an extension of the draft by only one vote, or the new Army would have disbanded on the eve of war.

Thus, the Army had made headway toward preparedness—but still had a long way to go—when, on 7 December 1941, stateside soldiers enjoying a leisurely Sunday afternoon heard the news of the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor in Hawai'i. The severe losses to Navy forces drew the most notice, but enemy dive-bombers and fighters also hit Army barracks, supply depots, hangers, and runways at Hickam and Wheeler

Fields, where aviators had parked planes wingtip to wingtip as a defense against sabotage. In total, the Japanese destroyed about 164 planes, seriously damaged 128, and killed or wounded around 700 Army soldiers in addition to the 2,900 casualties from the other services. The next day, a stunned, angry nation heard President Roosevelt denounce the surprise attack as a "date which will live in infamy," and Congress responded with almost unanimous approval to his call for a declaration of war on Japan. When the remaining Axis allies, Germany and Italy, declared war on the United States three days later, the country faced a two-ocean conflict. Americans had prepared for that contingency, having already agreed—in secret talks with the British—to defeat the more dangerous Nazi regime first before turning to the Pacific.

However, the Germany First strategy would be hard to maintain given the intense American desire for revenge and the long string of defeats the nation would endure into the summer of 1942. Within weeks of Pearl Harbor, the Japanese tide had swept across the Pacific, capturing Guam and Wake Island, seizing Hong Kong, driving into Thailand and Malaya, and sinking two British ships, the *Prince of Wales* and the *Repulse*. Within a few months, the Japanese had captured the supposedly impregnable British fortress of Singapore, occupied the Dutch East Indies, and overrun Burma. Only in the Philippines did the Japanese legions run into sustained resistance, as General Douglas MacArthur's Filipino-American forces clung to a foothold on the Bataan Peninsula and on the island of Corregidor at the entrance to Manila Bay. However, in the aftermath of Pearl Harbor, relief was impossible. In March, President Roosevelt told MacArthur to go to Australia, and the general vowed, "I shall return." Their supplies running out, the twin garrisons of Bataan and Corregidor surrendered in April and May.

While the Army fought to stave off disaster and preserve morale through 1942, it built its strength for the eventual counteroffensive. Divisions formed, endured thorough and realistic training, and engaged in large-scale maneuvers before deploying overseas, most toward the end of 1943. By then, the U.S. Army had mobilized ninety divisions, a small number compared to the hundreds in the Soviet and German armies but appropriate given the emphasis on American industry, air power, service and support units, and the Army's goal of keeping existing forces up to strength. American industrial might supplied the Army—including the Army Air Forces—with a seemingly unending stream of tanks, artillery pieces, bomber and fighter planes, jeeps, trucks, and munitions. Through 1943, the Army mobilized millions of new soldiers. African Americans served in some segregated logistical and combat units and the new Women's Army Corps helped with multiple administrative and logistical tasks, freeing soldiers for deployment to combat zones.

As the Army prepared, the tide was turning in favor of the Allies. In the Coral Sea and decisively at Midway in May and June 1942, American carriers inflicted crippling losses on the Imperial Japanese Navy and blunted further Axis expansion in the Pacific. At El Alamein in Egypt, General Bernard L. Montgomery's British Eighth Army stopped Field Marshal Erwin Rommel's drive on the Suez Canal. In November, he sent the German *Afrika Korps* reeling back in defeat across North Africa. At Stalingrad in the winter of 1943, the Soviet Red Army forced the German Sixth Army to surrender. On the Atlantic, after a dismal year of ship sinkings—many along the lightly defended U.S. East Coast—the Allied navies struck back in 1943. They inflicted losses that the German U-boat fleet could not replace and freed the sea-lanes for the Army to deploy en masse to Europe.

First to strike at German-occupied Europe were the planes of the U.S. Army Air Forces. Confident in the power of aerial strategic bombardment, the United States believed that daylight precision bombing with heavily armed B–17 Flying Fortresses and B–24 Liberator bombers on specific targets would inflict enough damage on industries and oil production that the enemy would be unable to support its forces. During the spring and summer of 1942, it deployed planes, crews, and munitions across the Atlantic and built bases in England for the Combined Bomber Offensive. After some initial raids on rail yards and industries in occupied France, the Eighth Air Force had enough strength by the summer and fall of 1943 to attack enemy factories, especially the key Schweinfurt plants that produced essential ball bearings for field artillery, precision instruments, and airplane engines. Although American bombers inflicted some major damage, German fighters and antiaircraft fire caused horrific losses. In one October week, the Eighth Air Force lost 148 heavy bombers and crews. The force could not long continue losing so many planes and personnel.

To American strategists, a cross-channel invasion of France was the best way to defeat the Nazis. However, in the face of British objections and in eagerness to get American troops into action against the Germans, President Roosevelt accepted the British suggestion of an invasion of French Northwest Africa. On 8 November 1942, under the command of Lt. Gen. Dwight D. Eisenhower, an Anglo-American task force landed at Algiers and Oran, Algeria, on the Mediterranean coast and at Casablanca, Morocco, on the Atlantic coast. In this early amphibious operation, lack of training of beach organization teams, poor coastal surveys, and primitive transfer of troops and materiel from ships to landing craft caused confusion. Fortunately, French forces offered little resistance, and the collaborationist French regime in North Africa soon called for a cease-fire and came over to the Allied side. Eisenhower then launched his forces east toward Tunisia in an effort to cut off Rommel's *Afrika Korps*, which

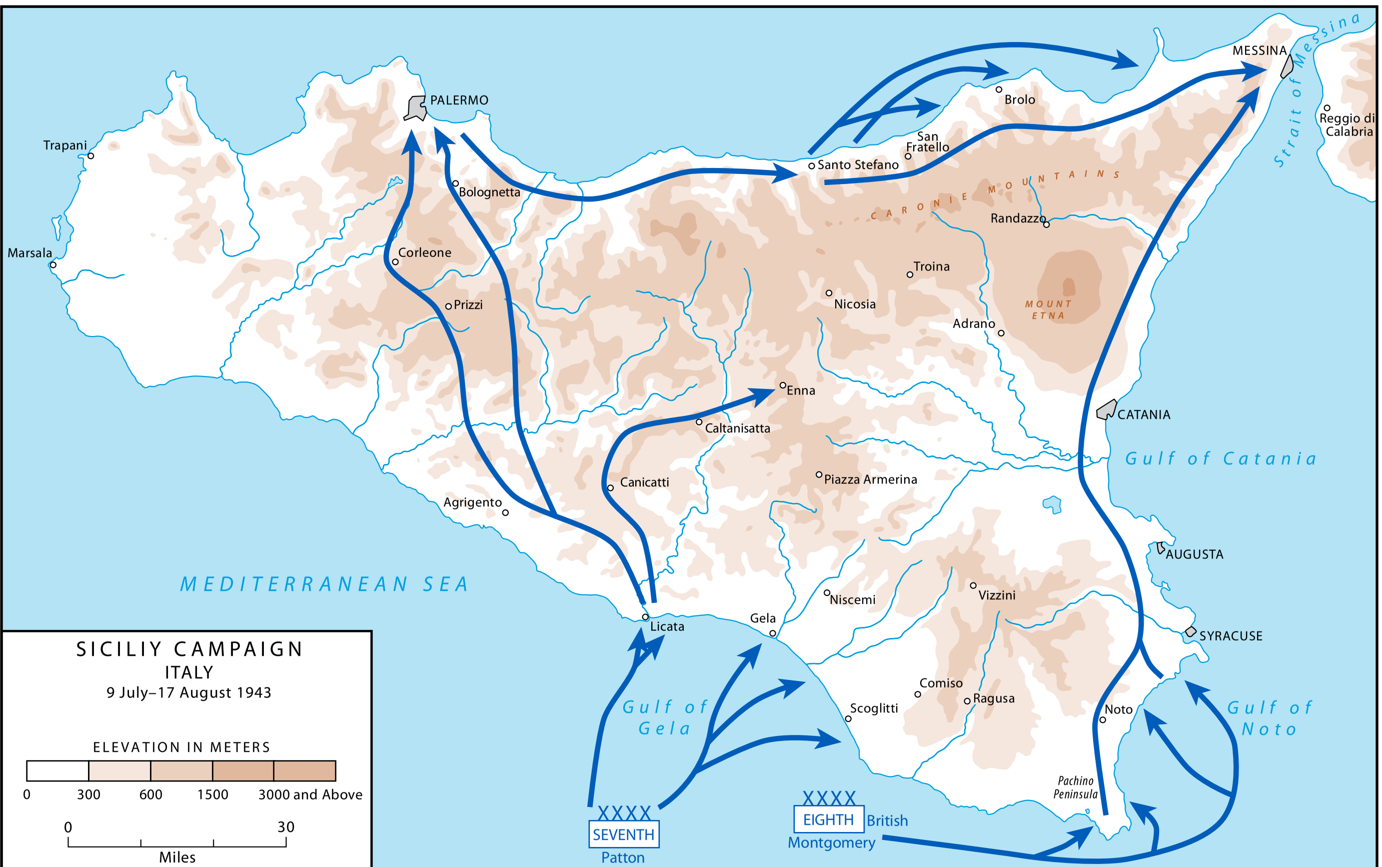
A riveter at Lockheed Corporation, Burbank, California
(*National Archives*)

was retreating from Egypt after El Alamein. However, vast distances, winter rains, poor roads, and the quick buildup of Axis reinforcements in Tunisia forced him to halt his advance. By mid-February 1943, the front had stabilized in Tunisia—the British First Army in the north, the French XIX Corps in the center, and the American II Corps in the desert facing the Eastern Dorsal Mountains in the south. The *Afrika Korps*, pursued by the British Eighth Army, approached the front from Libya.

On Valentine's Day 1943, the Germans struck the overextended II Corps sector. Nazi forefront attacks encircled exposed outposts and brushed off tank forces that tried, in piecemeal counterattacks, to rescue those positions and restore the front. The routed American forces withdrew to the Western Dorsals, where—stiffened by rushed Allied reinforcements—they held firm. Although the II Corps soon recovered the lost territory, the Battle of Kasserine Pass cost more than 6,000 American casualties, half of them captured, as well as the loss of 183 tanks, 104 halftracks, and 200 guns. American weapons, training, and leadership were lacking in this first test against the experienced German troops. Yet observers noted that the American soldiers seemed more angry than cowed, like a team that had lost a ball game to an opponent that they knew they should have beaten.

The Americans learned fast in the Tunisia classroom. After Kasserine, Maj. Gen. George S. Patton Jr. took command of the II Corps and instituted a rigorous retraining and disciplinary program. By late March and early April, the corps was putting enough pressure on the enemy to ease the Eighth Army's northward advance into Tunisia, crowding the Axis into a shrinking corner of the country. Shifting to the north, the II Corps, now under Maj. Gen. Omar N. Bradley, joined the final attack in late April and May, capturing the dominating height of Hill 609 and racing into Bizerte on 7 May. During the next week, 240,000 Axis troops surrendered, and the North African shore of the Mediterranean was clear of the enemy.

Although American leaders still wanted a cross-channel invasion, they knew they could not launch one until 1944, and this realization—along with the opportunity to win control of Mediterranean sea-lanes and knock Italy out of the war—induced them to agree to more operations in the theater in 1943. On 10 July, Patton's Seventh U.S. Army landed next to Montgomery's Eighth Army on the beaches of southeastern Sicily. This time, beach surveys, large landing craft for shore-to-shore operations, pontoon bridging, amphibious trucks called DUKWs, and strong naval gunfire support enabled a more orderly landing, despite heavy surf and stiffer resistance than had been faced in North Africa. Having established a solid foothold, Patton sent half of his army on a rapid swing through western Sicily to seize the key port of Palermo on the north coast. The drive featured the 3d Infantry Division's "Truscott Trot," named after its



Map 1

American soldiers observe artillery fire on a Sicilian town.
(*National Archives*)

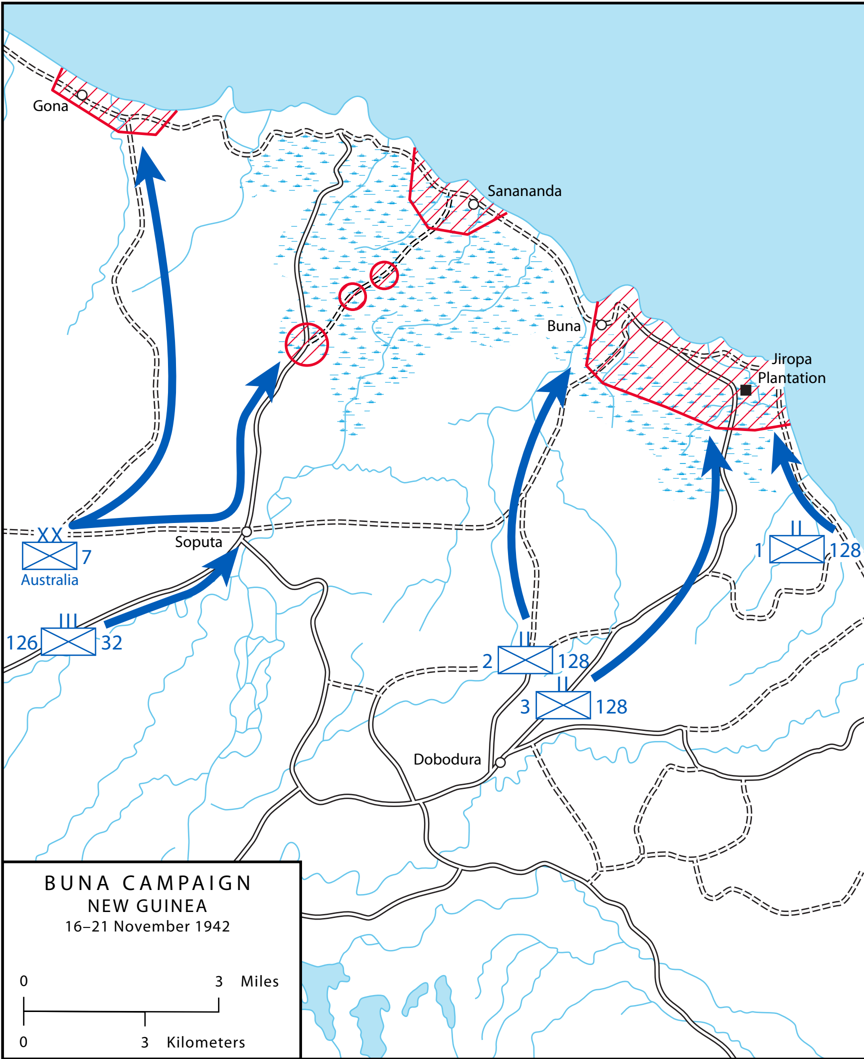
commander, an old cavalry soldier named Maj. Gen. Lucian K. Truscott Jr., who trained his infantry to march 4 miles per hour through the dust and summer heat. Patton then turned east toward Messina to reduce further the shrinking Axis perimeter in northeast Sicily. The last stages of the campaign in August consisted of hard fighting in rugged mountain terrain, as typified by the weeklong battle for the town of Troina and by amphibious end runs by Patton's forces to bypass resistance along the coastal road. On 17 August, the Allies entered Messina, but this time, most German troops escaped to the Italian mainland.

Italy surrendered on 3 September, the same day that the Allies began their invasion of the Italian mainland. The Germans soon dispelled any hopes that they would evacuate Italy. They disarmed Italian forces and made clear that they would fight for the peninsula.

The Anglo-American leadership anticipated that an advance in Italy would pin down German forces needed elsewhere. However, during the campaign, it became a matter of some debate who was pinning down whom. After the Fifth U.S. Army under Lt. Gen. Mark W. Clark landed at Salerno on 9 September and captured the demolished port of Naples on 1 October, the campaign devolved into a slow, grinding drive north across mountains and streams through the mud and rain of an Italian fall and winter. By the end of 1943, the Allies remained well short of Rome.

For all the attention the Army devoted to the European theater, it could not simply ignore the Pacific. Through 1942, it deployed forces to keep open communications with Australia and MacArthur's Southwest Pacific area. After Midway, American strategists felt that they must seize the initiative in the Pacific, resulting in the Marine landing at Guadalcanal in the Solomon Islands in August 1942. Two Army divisions joined the Marines during the fall, and by 9 February, American forces had cleared the rest of the island. Meanwhile, in November, MacArthur's forces had launched their own advance against the Japanese position at Buna, near the southeast tip of Papua New Guinea. Untrained in jungle warfare, poorly supplied, and losing thousands to malaria, the 32d Infantry Division struggled to overcome the dense swamp and fierce, well-fortified

Lt. Gen. Mark W. Clark aboard the USS *Ancon* during the landings at Salerno, Italy, on 12 September 1943 (*National Archives*)



Map 2

Japanese opposition. On 14 December, the Americans captured Buna village, but it took weeks more to clear the area. More than 5,000 Japanese soldiers had died, but the cost was high for the 32d Division. Of its 10,000 troops, more than 90 percent were casualties, including 7,000 sick. The road to victory over Japan promised to be a long one.

Through the rest of 1943, the Army and other services continued the offensive in the Southwest Pacific, the Solomon Islands, the Northern

American M3 light tanks near Jiropa Plantation, Buna, 12 December 1942
(*National Archives*)

"The Big Three" at the Tehran Conference (*left to right*: Joseph Stalin, Roosevelt, and Winston Churchill)
(*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)

Pacific, and belatedly the Central Pacific. At the start of March, in an imposing display of air power, Allied planes destroyed an entire Japanese troop convoy in the Bismarck Sea off the north coast of the island of New Guinea. In New Guinea, MacArthur leapfrogged his way up the coast, using his naval and air support to bypass Japanese strongpoints, which—cut off by American control of their lines of communications—could only die on the vine. By the end of the year, the Americans and Australians had reached Finschhafen, New Guinea. They were close to breaching the archipelago known as the Bismarck Barrier that constituted the outer Japanese defense perimeter. In the Solomon Islands, Army troops, Marines, and allied forces overcame tenacious Japanese opposition in the jungle islands of New Georgia and Bougainville, as they drove toward the mighty Japanese base of Rabaul in the Bismarck Barrier. The Allies did not assault Rabaul itself, but they used naval bombardments and air strikes to isolate it and remove it as a factor. To the north, in May and August, Army troops reoccupied Attu and Kiska, two Aleutian Islands that had fallen to the Japanese during the Midway campaign, In November 1943, the Army's 27th Infantry Division assaulted Makin in the Gilbert Islands, as the Central Pacific Offensive opened.

By the end of 1943, the preliminaries had ended and the Allies were clearly on their way to final victory. Notwithstanding the Germany First strategy, thirteen American divisions had deployed to the Pacific whereas only slightly more—seventeen—had gone to Europe, showing that the country was fighting a real two-ocean war, even conducting three separate offensives in the Pacific. With the new year, the balance tipped even more toward Europe, as Allied leaders at the Tehran Conference in December 1943 confirmed a cross-channel attack on France for the summer of 1944. The Army now prepared for D-Day and the decisive, long-awaited "second front" in Northwest Europe.

TIMELINE

World War II (1939–1943)

1939

1 September:	Germany invades Poland

1940

10 May–22 June:	Fall of France
27 August:	Congress approves mobilization of National Guard into federal service
3 September:	President Roosevelt's destroyer deal with Great Britain
14 September:	Congress approves the first peacetime draft in U.S. history

1941

11 March:	Congress passes the Lend-Lease Act
22 June:	Germany invades the Soviet Union
7 December:	Japanese surprise attack on Pearl Harbor
8 December:	United States declares war on Japan
11 December:	Germany and Italy declare war on the United States

1942

9 April:	Surrender of Bataan
4–8 May:	Battle of the Coral Sea
7 May:	Surrender of Corregidor
3–6 June:	Battle of Midway
7 August:	Marines land on Guadalcanal
23 August–2 February 1943:	Battle of Stalingrad
13 October–9 February 1943:	Army troops join the battle for Guadalcanal
23 October–4 November:	Battle of El Alamein
8 November:	Operation TORCH, invasion of French Northwest Africa
19 November–2 January 1943:	Battle of Buna

1943

14–22 February:	Battle of Kasserine Pass
11–30 May:	Recapture of Attu in the Aleutian Islands
13 May:	Tunisian campaign ends in Allied victory
30 June–25 August:	Battle of New Georgia, part of Solomon Islands drive on Rabaul
30 June–2 October:	Battles of Lae and Finschhafen, New Guinea
9 July–17 August:	Sicily campaign
9 September:	Landing at Salerno, Italy, by Fifth U.S. Army
8–14 October:	"The Critical Week," culminating in bombing of Schweinfurt
1 November–24 December:	Battle of Bougainville in the Northern Solomon Islands
20–23 November:	Battle of Makin in the Gilbert Islands
28–30 November:	Tehran Conference of Roosevelt, Churchill, and Stalin

General George C. Marshall Jr.
(*U.S. Army*)

PEOPLE, ARTIFACTS, AND EVENTS

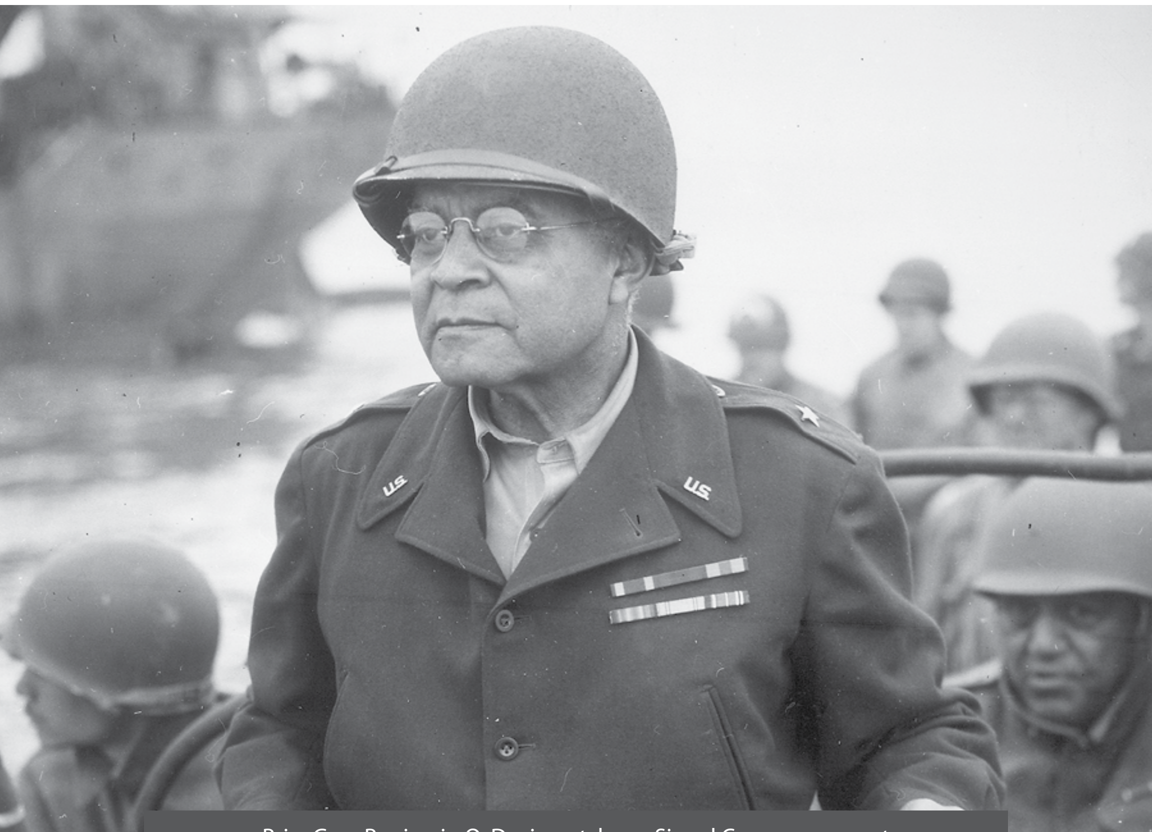
As Army chief of staff during World War II, **George C. Marshall Jr.** oversaw the largest military expansion in American history, with 8 million soldiers in the ranks by 1945. A graduate of the Virginia Military Institute, young Marshall served in the Philippines and played a key role as a staff planner for the American Expeditionary Forces in World War I. While a junior officer, he received the ultimate compliment from a superior who, responding whether he would want Marshall as a future subordinate, said, “Yes, but I would prefer to serve under his command.” As assistant commandant of the Infantry School, Marshall revolutionized the curriculum to prepare officers for war’s uncertainties and to foster initiative and original thinking. In 1939, President Roosevelt promoted him over the heads of four more senior generals for the post of chief of staff. A strong voice for preparedness in the years before Pearl Harbor, the austere, grave Marshall later became such a towering figure in Allied strategic councils that President Roosevelt, when forced to decide whether to have Marshall lead the D-Day landing, reportedly admitted, “I could not sleep with you out of Washington.” Widely acclaimed as “the organizer of victory” and promoted to five-star general, Marshall left his post at the end of the war. However, President Harry S. Truman appointed him secretary of state and he received the Nobel Peace Prize for advocating the Marshall Plan to revive war-torn Europe. In 1950, President Truman again recalled him to serve as secretary of defense during the Korean War. In September 1951, after 49 years of service, he finally withdrew to his home in Virginia as the outstanding soldier-leader of his generation.

To the Army, the nation, and the world, he was simply "Ike." Raised with five brothers on the Kansas plains, **Dwight D. Eisenhower** graduated from West Point in 1915 with the class that produced more generals than any other in academy history. Eisenhower was vigorous, gregarious, and had a wide grin that could charm prime ministers and privates. Nevertheless, Eisenhower had seen no combat and had never commanded a unit larger than a battalion before World War II. His reputation was that of a superb staff officer with a talent for coaching football on the side. He was first in his class at the Command and General Staff School and he impressed a succession of Army leaders—his mentor Fox Conner, John J. Pershing, MacArthur, and ultimately Marshall. In the year before Pearl Harbor, he rose from lieutenant colonel to brigadier general and after the attack, he served as the chief of the War Department's Operations Division. In June 1942, Marshall sent him to London to take charge of the U.S. European Theater. His diplomatic skills and status as the leading American on the scene made him the logical choice to lead the Anglo-American invasion of French Northwest Africa. His victories as a coalition commander in the Mediterranean ultimately earned him the supreme command for Operation Overlord, the invasion of German-occupied France. Eisenhower made the key decision to seize on a brief break in the turbulent weather engulfing Normandy and launch the invasion on 6 June 1944. He oversaw the breakout in France, the destruction of the German Seventh Army in the Falaise Pocket, the pursuit across France to the German border, the Battle of the Bulge, and the final thrust into Germany. A successful theater commander, Eisenhower was most notable in his ability to keep strong personalities from different countries working for a common cause. A five-star general and national hero, he took Marshall's place as chief of staff and later served two terms as president of the United States.

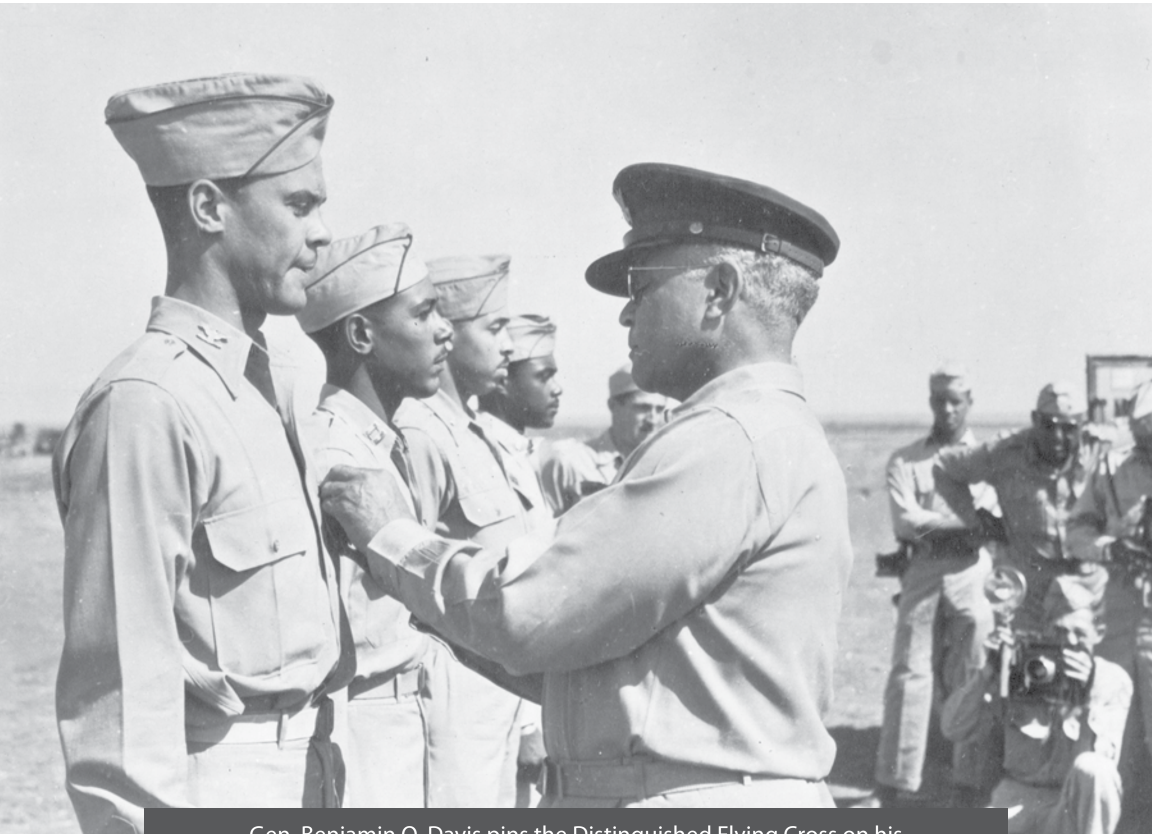
General Dwight D. Eisenhower
(*National Archives*)

Douglas MacArthur, Robert Oliver Skemp, 1973
(*Army Art Collection*)

If Eisenhower was the symbol of victory in Europe, **Douglas MacArthur** was the Army's dominant figure in the Pacific. The son of a general who received the Medal of Honor in the Civil War, the handsome, charismatic, and egotistical MacArthur was a legend even before World War II. First in his West Point class, he served in the Philippines and Veracruz, Mexico, where he engaged in personal combat with Filipino guerrillas and Mexican caballeros. After America's entry into World War I, he pushed for creation of a National Guard division from different state units—the famous Rainbow Division—and then served, as its chief of staff, then brigade commander, and finally as division commander. He personally led raids and scouts into no-man's-land, receiving two Distinguished Service Crosses. As superintendent of West Point in the early 1920s, he tried to modernize the curriculum against fierce opposition. As Army chief of staff in the Depression era, he fought to limit force cuts. In 1935, he accepted the fledgling Philippine government's request to build its army, with the rank of field marshal. As war with Japan approached, he returned to active duty as commander of U.S. Army Forces in the Far East. From the time of his forced evacuation from the Philippines in March 1942, he single-mindedly sought to carry out his pledge to return. In October 1944, he fulfilled his promise with the landing on Leyte. Clad in his distinctive crushed khaki hat with gold braid, dark sunglasses, and corncob pipe, he was the face of the Army's war in the Pacific, down to the Japanese surrender in Tokyo Bay in September 1945. After the war, he performed perhaps his greatest feat in overseeing the successful occupation of Japan. During the Korean War, his brilliant landing at Inchon put the North Koreans to flight, but his pursuit to the Yalu River led the Communist Chinese to intervene with devastating force. MacArthur's unauthorized calls for a larger war in Korea, declaring, "There is no substitute for victory," led to his controversial relief in April 1951 by President Truman. He returned home to a hero's welcome.


Brig. Gen. Benjamin O. Davis watches a Signal Corps crew erect poles in France. (*National Archives*)

Brig. Gen. Benjamin O. Davis Sr. became the first African American to attain the rank of brigadier general in the U.S. Army. During the Spanish American War, he served with the 8th U.S. Volunteer Infantry, an African American unit, as a temporary first lieutenant until it disbanded in March 1899. Three months later, he enlisted in the 9th U.S. Cavalry, rising to sergeant major within a year. While at Fort Duchesne, Utah, Davis came under Lt. Charles Young, then the only Black commissioned officer in the Army. With his assistance, Davis passed the officer candidate test at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. Commissioned as a second lieutenant of cavalry on 2 February 1901, Davis deployed to the Philippines, serving with the 9th and 10th Cavalry. For the next three decades, Davis had several assignments designed to keep him from commanding White soldiers in a segregated Army. He taught military science at Wilberforce University and the Tuskegee Institute, became a military attaché in Liberia, and



Gen. Benjamin O. Davis pins the Distinguished Flying Cross on his son, Col. Benjamin O. Davis Jr. (*National Archives*)

instructed Ohio and New York National Guard soldiers. In 1938, he received his first independent command, the 369th Regiment, New York National Guard. One week before the 1940 election, President Roosevelt chose Davis to be the nation's first Black general. He spent most of World War II with the War Department's Advisory Committee on Negro Troop Policies, inspecting several Black units in the European Theater. During the Battle of the Bulge, when the need for infantry replacements was especially acute, Davis offered a proposal to train Black volunteers as individual replacements, a concept that Eisenhower modified to allow Black volunteer platoons to join White units. After fifty years of service, General Davis retired in 1948. His son, Benjamin O. Davis Jr., was the commander of the famed Tuskegee Airmen and later the first African American general in the U.S. Air Force.

Rodger W. Young, Medal of Honor recipient, reduced to private at his own request (*U.S. Army*)

In January 1938, **Pvt. Rodger W. Young** joined the Ohio National Guard at the age of nineteen. Standing just 5 feet, 2 inches tall and weighing 125 pounds, he was one of the smallest soldiers in his company, but he proved himself as a soldier. By the time his unit, the 148th Infantry Regiment, deployed to the Pacific Theater in 1942, Young was a sergeant and squad leader. However, his poor hearing—the result of a head injury in high school—had so deteriorated that he believed that it might hamper his ability to lead in combat. Therefore, he asked his regimental commander to reduce him to private to eliminate that possibility. After a physical examination revealed that he was almost deaf, Young ignored the doctor's recommendation to go to a field hospital for treatment and asked to remain with his squad. One week later, on 31 July 1943, Private Young was part of a patrol reconnoitering Japanese positions on New Georgia in the Solomon Islands. As the patrol returned to American lines, a nearby enemy machine gun nest ambushed them. The initial burst killed two soldiers and wounded Young. Ignoring the patrol commander's order to withdraw, Young crept toward the Japanese position. The enemy wounded him a second time. He continued to advance, drawing machine-gun fire and throwing hand grenades at the enemy emplacement until hostile fire hit him a third time and killed him. In January 1944, Young received a posthumous Medal of Honor for his sacrifice, which had enabled his platoon to withdraw from the ambush without further casualties. One year later, the songwriter Frank H. Loesser wrote "The Ballad of Rodger Young" in his memory.

George Watson, Medal of Honor recipient (*U.S. Navy*)

A graduate of the Colorado Agricultural and Mechanical College (now Colorado State University), **Pvt. George Watson** joined the Army in September 1942 and became a bath and laundry specialist with the 29th Quartermaster Battalion. He deployed to the Pacific Theater and was on his way to New Guinea aboard the Army-chartered Dutch steamer *Jacob* when Japanese bombers attacked it on 8 March 1943. The vessel took two direct hits and soon listed heavily. The ship's captain ordered all passengers and crew to abandon ship. As the *Jacob* began to capsize, Watson disregarded his own safety and pulled soldiers who could not swim to the few available life rafts; the suction caused by the sinking ship made his task even more difficult. Yet, he continued his lifesaving efforts until he became exhausted and drowned. On 13 June 1943, Watson became the first African American to receive the Distinguished Service Cross for his actions in World War II. In 1997, President William J. "Bill" Clinton upgraded this decoration to a Medal of Honor, making Watson just one of seven Black World War II veterans so honored.

Ernie Pyle, war correspondent, eating C-rations, Anzio, Italy.
(*National Archives*)

Far from the romantic, martial images of American soldiers of past wars, the media portrayed the typical soldier of World War II as a homely hero, a regular American who went about his business with bravery and resourcefulness but yearned to finish the job and return home. Two journalists in particular helped craft this depiction.

A native of Indiana, **Ernie T. Pyle** was an aviation reporter and a managing editor for the *Washington Daily News* before writing a syndicated column for Scripps-Howard, describing his car jaunts around the United States. After reporting on the German bombing of London, Pyle went to North Africa, Sicily, Italy, and France, where he wrote columns telling his American readers of the hardships, fears, and endurance of the common soldier. Wherever Pyle popped up in a familiar knit cap with his notebook,

William H. “Bill” Mauldin with sketchpad
(*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)

soldiers would crowd around him to give their names and hometowns on the chance that he would mention them in his column for their families to read. More than 400 newspapers carried his work, much of which he published in *Here Is Your War* (1944) and *Brave Men* (1945). In 1944, he received the Pulitzer Prize for his war correspondence. He did not survive the war; a Japanese bullet killed him on Ie Shima (Iejima) near Okinawa in April 1945. **William Henry “Bill” Mauldin,** a cartoonist for the 45th Infantry Division’s newspaper and *Stars and Stripes*, developed the famous characters “Willie” and “Joe,” two unshaven, disheveled soldiers who exemplified the drudgery, misery, and irreverence of the combat infantry soldier. Mauldin received the Pulitzer Prize in 1945 for his work and later published his cartoons in *Up Front* (1945).

Jeep splashing through a flooded road in Normandy, France. On the front of the jeep is an iron bar used to cut thin strands of wire that the enemy strung across the roads level with the heads of the occupants of the jeeps, which traveled with tops and windshields down. (*U.S. Army*)

The original **jeep** was the result of the Army's request in 1940 for a general purpose vehicle—GP elided to "jeep"— that was small, lightweight, capable of carrying a light machine gun, and equipped with four-wheel drive for cross-country travel. The final production model appeared in late 1941 and was a collective effort of several auto and auto parts manufacturers. It had a Spicer-produced, four-wheel transmission; Willys-made Go-Devil engine; and legendary bodywork by Ford. During World War II, production of the jeep resulted in the manufacture of 647,925 vehicles, including nearly 13,000 of a Ford-made amphibious model known as the "Seep." Ernie Pyle wrote of the jeep, "It did everything. . . . It went everywhere." The jeep served as traveling headquarters for commanders; as taxis for aircrews heading to and from their aircraft; as combat reconnaissance vehicles; as ambulances, cargo, or artillery haulers; and as firefighting vehicles. The jeep landed with the assault waves in the Pacific, North Africa, and Europe, and it carried victorious Allies into Rome, Paris, Berlin, and Tokyo.

Inventor John C. Garand (*left*) points out features of his M1 rifle to Maj. Gen. Charles M. Wesson, U.S. Army chief of ordnance (*center*), and Brig. Gen. Gilbert H. Stewart (*right*).
(*Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division*)

Named after its designer, John C. Garand, the **M1 Garand rifle** was the standard U.S. service rifle during World War II and the Korean War. After years of testing and modification, the Springfield Armory began producing the M1 in September 1937. Further modifications followed, and by the end of 1941, the Army had equipped most of its soldiers with the M1. During World War II, the Springfield Armory and the Winchester Repeating Arms Co. produced more than 4 million M1 rifles. The M1 was a .30-caliber, semiautomatic rifle with an eight-round clip. In field conditions, it proved reliable, accurate, and easy to maintain. General Patton called it "the greatest battle implement ever devised." The success of the M1 rifle spurred both the Allied and Axis militaries to increase their issue and development of semi- and fully-automatic small arms, and to move away from traditional bolt-action weapons.

The **M4 Sherman Medium Tank** was the most widely used Allied tank of its class in World War II. Not surprisingly, the M4 was also the most-produced tank in American history, with nearly 50,000 rolling off assembly lines from February 1942 to July 1945. The U.S. Army received 19,247 tanks, the Marine Corps 1,114, and the U.S. government distributed more than 20,000 to Great Britain, Canada, France, China, and the Soviet Union through Lend-Lease. The British named it the "Sherman" after the American Civil War general, William T. Sherman, a designation that the U.S. Army soon adopted. Although initially outgunned by heavier German tanks, the standard M4 tank was reliable, sturdy, and easy to

maintain, boasting a 75-mm. (later 76-mm.) main gun, one heavy and two medium machine guns, and a fully traversable turret for its five-soldier crew. The M4 proved extremely adaptable under adverse conditions, and constantly received improvements to firepower, protection, and mobility during the war. The British attached rotors and chains to clear paths through minefields, whereas the Americans fashioned plows to drive through the hedgerow country of Normandy. Using a special flotation screen, engineers even made the M4 buoyant enough to launch from a landing craft and make its way to shore under propeller power.

A Sherman tank battalion preparing for an attack near the village of Monghidoro, Italy
(*U.S. Army*)

Motorola SCR–300 radio
(*National Electronics Museum*)

Radio communications made huge strides during World War II. In the interwar years, the inventor Edwin H. Armstrong, a veteran of the Army Signal Corps, set the stage for these advances by developing frequency modulation (FM) as an improvement in sound quality on amplitude modulation (AM) transmissions. FM crystal-controlled sets were the equivalent of wire telephone communications—reliable, mostly noise-free, and easy to use. AM radio had one distinct advantage over FM, however, in that users could transmit AM signals over much greater distances. FM operators overcame this problem by using radio-relay techniques, extending the short-range of FM in 30-mile intervals to whatever distance users might require. They accomplished this with relays of truck-mounted equipment, providing in a matter of hours long-range, highly reliable, multichannel circuits—much faster, easier, and cheaper than laying miles of wire lines. Better yet, technicians soon interconnected these radio networks into wire-line systems. The marriage of wire and radio created high-quality communications, irrespective of whether signals traveled by wire or radio. In combat, armor and artillery units and infantry commands using the portable **SCR–300 backpack radio, or "walkie-talkie,"** could talk and hear clearly over their FM sets, which remained free of the static and interference that bedeviled enemy combatants' AM radios. "I know the fighting would have lasted longer if we hadn't had FM on our side," wrote an American veteran of the European theater. "We were able to shoot fast and effectively because we could get information quickly and accurately by voice on FM."

For all the advances in radio communications, their vulnerability to interception and decryption produced **ULTRA**, the greatest Allied intelligence coup of the war. ULTRA was the code word that the Allies used to identify intelligence from a variety of decrypted German and Japanese military and naval ciphers. For their codes, the Germans employed the Enigma machine, a device that used predetermined settings to convert plain text or coded signals into a seemingly random series of letters. The Germans thought the device made their communications impenetrable, but Polish and French intelligence worked with British cryptanalysts at a British estate called Bletchley Park to reconstruct the machine and crack the codes. By 1943, ULTRA intercepts enabled the Allies to track German submarines, contributing to victory in the battle of the Atlantic. They also proved of enormous value in identifying enemy units, although overreliance on ULTRA occasionally cost the Allies, as at the battles of Kasserine Pass and the Bulge. For the Pacific, American cryptanalysts at Arlington Hall in the Washington, D.C., suburbs worked with their British and Australian colleagues to crack Japanese Army and Navy codes. Intercepts from the Japanese Navy's main administrative code proved decisive at the Battle of Midway. Allied success in the great air battles of late 1942 and early 1943, in submarine attacks against Japanese shipping, and in the downing of the plane of Japanese Admiral Yamamoto Isoroku—the architect of the Pearl Harbor raid—owed much to alerts from ULTRA. The existence of ULTRA remained a secret until British Group Capt. Frederick W. Winterbotham's *The ULTRA Secret* appeared in 1974.

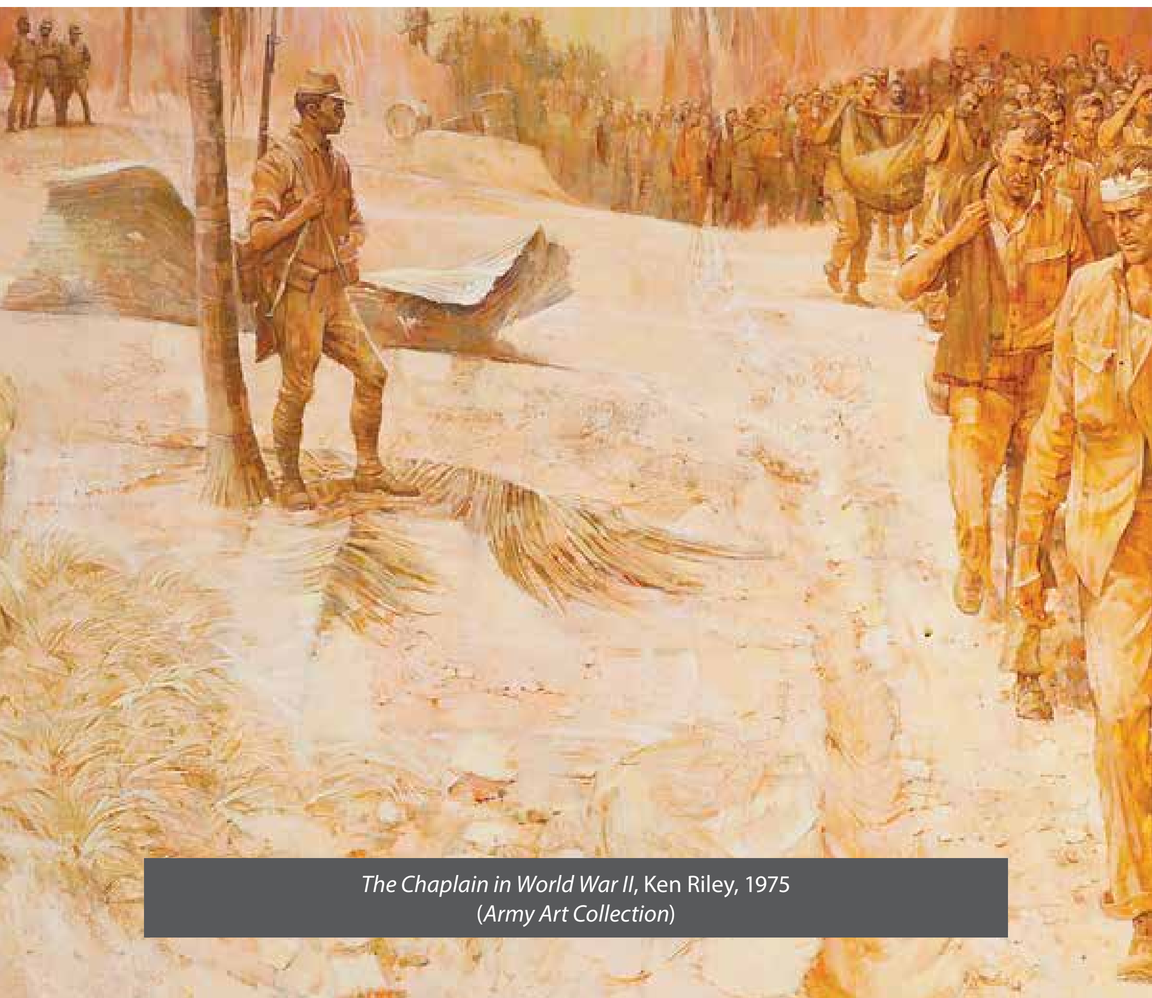
German Enigma machine in use in 1943
(*Wikimedia Commons*)

Two DUKWs on a beach near Anzio, Italy
(*U.S. Army*)

Early in the war, Allied logisticians faced a major challenge in unloading seaborne cargo across beaches and getting it inland to supply dumps. In the spring of 1943, Allied planners in the Mediterranean had to land the Seventh Army on Sicily without a nearby major port to sustain the force. A large part of the solution to this transportation problem was the **DUKW**, a 2.5-ton amphibious truck developed by Sparkman and Stephens yacht designers under the auspices of the U.S. Office of Scientific Research and Development. (D stood for model year, U for amphibian, K for all-wheel drive, and W for dual rear axles.) The DUKW consisted of a General Motors six-wheel-drive military truck with a 269.5-cubic-inch, straight-six engine, and a boat-shaped hull for buoyancy. It was 31 feet long, 8 feet wide, and 9 feet high and it could carry 5,000 pounds or 24 troops. Its maximum speed was 50 miles per hour on the road and 6.4 miles per hour on the water. It was the first vehicle to allow the driver to vary the tire pressure from the cab, according to the surface on which it was operating. The first wartime use of the DUKW involved landing of troops on Nouméa, New Caledonia, in the Pacific Theater in March 1943. Between 1942 and 1945, General Motors built 21,147 of the vehicles, which unloaded thousands of troops and tons of supplies across beaches in every theater. The Army organized 70 amphibious truck companies and assigned 12,829 soldiers to operate and maintain their vehicles.

A B–25 Mitchell bomber takes off from the USS *Hornet* during the Doolittle Raid. (*National Archives*)

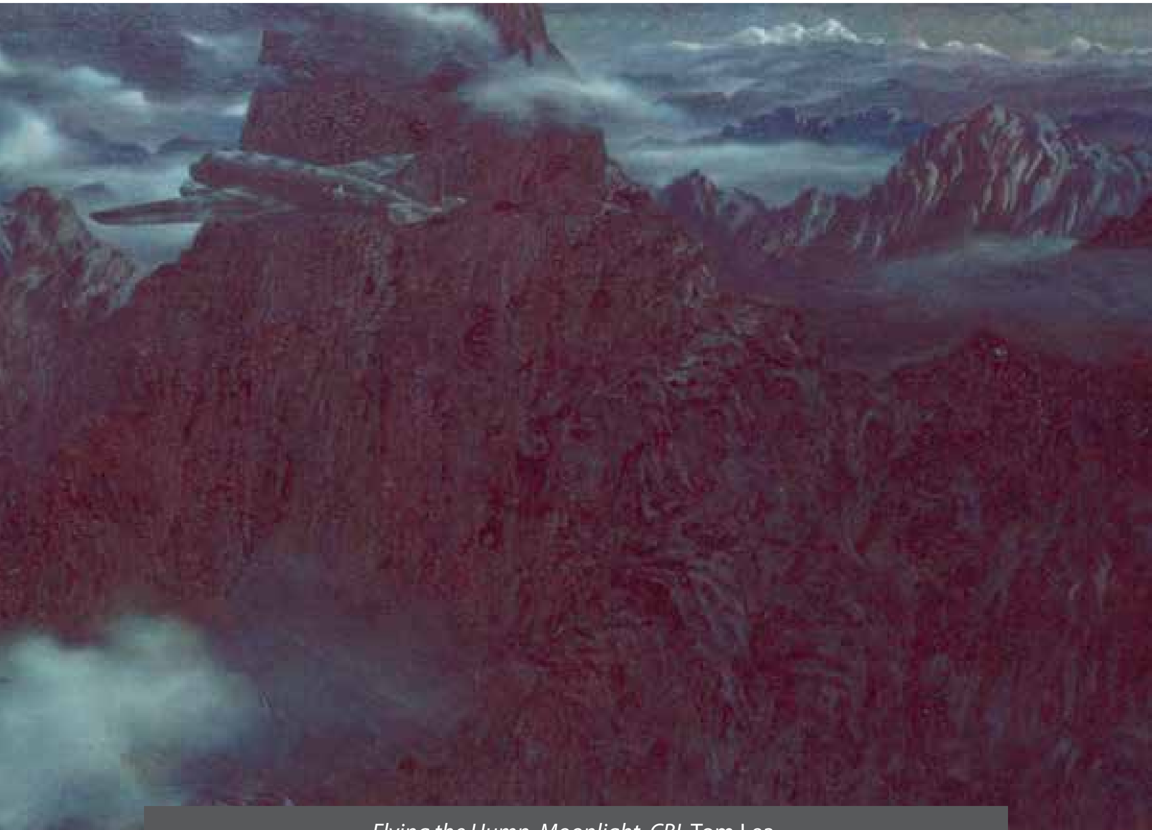
In response to Pearl Harbor and the string of Japanese victories in early 1942, President Roosevelt urged the Joint Chiefs of Staff to find a way to bomb Japan as soon as possible to boost American morale and shake Japanese confidence. Army Air Forces headquarters chose veteran pilot Lt. Col. James H. Doolittle to lead the mission. On 18 April 1942, sixteen B–25 Mitchell medium bombers took off from the aircraft carrier USS *Hornet* about 600 miles east of Japan, almost 200 miles farther than planned owing to the task force's discovery by a Japanese patrol boat. Neither Doolittle nor his pilots had ever guided a bomber off the deck of an aircraft carrier before, but they managed to do so without a mishap. On reaching the Japanese mainland, the crews dropped their bombs on oil storage facilities, military installations, and factories in Tokyo and several other Japanese cities, and then headed out over the East China Sea. As their fuel tanks emptied, the pilots realized they could not reach their designated airfields in China. One by one, the crews ditched at sea, bailed out, or crash-landed in China. One B–25 even landed in the Soviet Union. Although the **Doolittle Raid** did relatively little physical damage, American home front morale soared. The raid also stunned the Japanese people and embarrassed their leaders, who decided to extend their island defense perimeter farther into the Pacific—a decision that led to the decisive Battle of Midway.



The Chaplain in World War II, Ken Riley, 1975
(*Army Art Collection*)

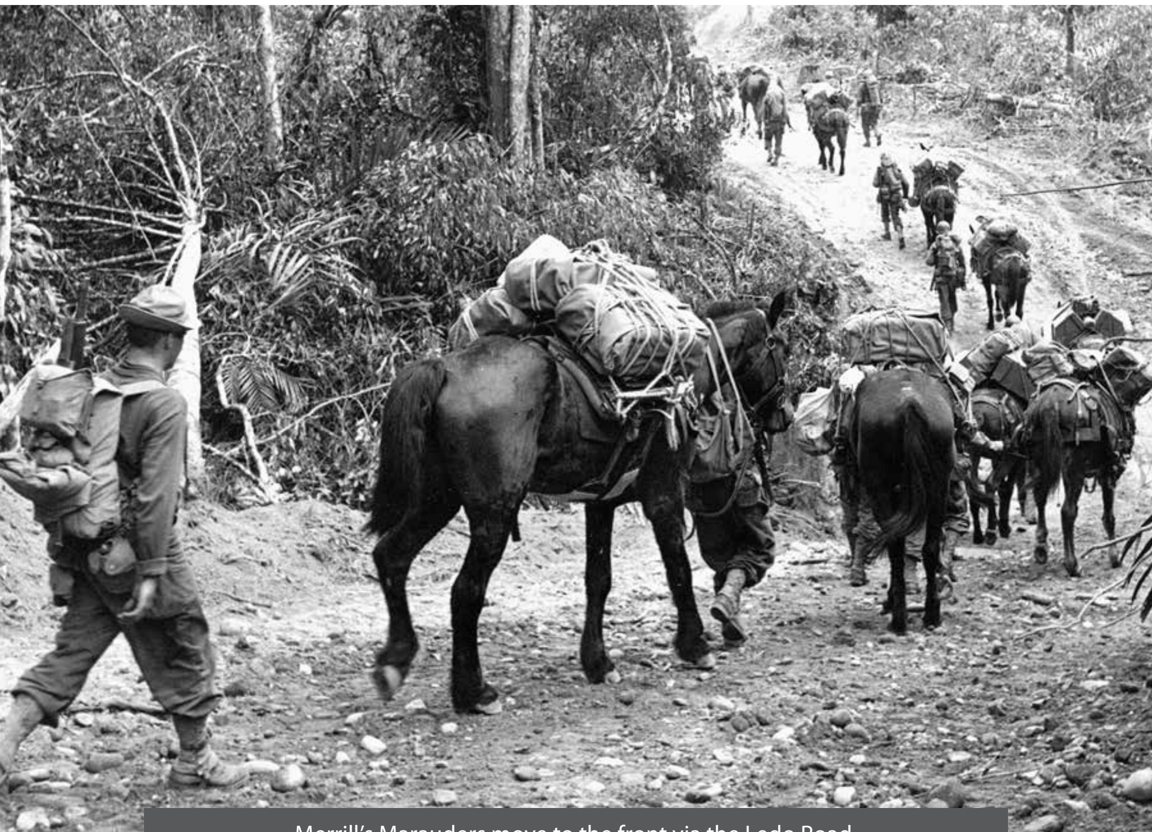
After the surrender of Bataan on 9 April 1942, the Japanese herded their 78,000 Filipino and American prisoners on a grueling 65-mile trek up the peninsula to an old Philippine Army post at Camp O'Donnell—an episode that came to be known as the **Bataan Death March**. More than 600 Americans and between 5,000 and 10,000 Filipinos perished in this infamous ordeal. Many of the Allied troops were already sick with malaria or dysentery and close to starving after months of hard fighting and lack of proper food. The Japanese underestimated the number of prisoners and their fitness for such a march. Some of the captives rode in trucks to their destination. The Japanese allowed others to receive food and water from Filipino civilians who lined the route. But for too many, the march was

marked by inexorable cruelty. Japanese troops shot, bayoneted, or beheaded soldiers who could not keep up with the others. They confiscated personal items in repeated "searches"; one officer who refused to surrender his wedding ring had his finger hacked off with a bolo knife. On occasion, the guards stopped the thirsty prisoners next to artesian wells, allowing them to see the water but killing anyone who tried to drink. Bodies lay across the road in various stages of decomposition. Only in 1943, as some American prisoners escaped captivity, did the gruesome story reach the United States. In 1946, the Allies executed the Japanese commander, General Homma Masaharu, for various war crimes that included the death march, although he claimed ignorance of the march's high casualty rate.



Flying the Hump, Moonlight, CBI, Tom Lea.
(*Army Art Collection*)

By occupying Burma in the spring of 1942, the Japanese closed the Burma Road, 700 miles of dirt highway that represented China's last overland link with the outside world. For three years, American logisticians had to send fuel, ammunition, and other supplies to China over the **Hump**, a 500-mile-long airlift from Assam, India, over the 15,000-foot peaks of the Himalayas to Chinese airfields at Kunming. The air transports frequently had to fly at their maximum altitude. They encountered icing, turbulence, monsoon weather, and Japanese fighters from bases in northern Burma. As more transport planes became available—more than 300 in 1945—airlift tonnage rose from 82 tons in July 1942 to 18,975 tons in July 1944,



Merrill's Marauders move to the front via the Ledo Road.
(*U.S. Army*)

and finally 71,042 tons in July 1945. Meanwhile, in one of the major engineering feats of the war, the Army's engineers constructed a new road from the Indian town of Ledo, near the Burma border, through hundreds of miles of rugged jungle terrain. As Chinese forces under American General Joseph W. Stilwell advanced into northern Burma in 1944, the engineers of the **Ledo Road** followed, first to Myitkyina in northern Burma, then to Bhamo, and finally to Mu-se, where it linked up with the old Burma Road and continued to China. When the entire route of 928 miles from Ledo to Kunming opened in February 1945, the Allies renamed it the Stilwell Road after the general who had done so much to make it possible.

The “Big Red One” shoulder sleeve insignia
(*U.S. Army Institute of Heraldry*)

The combat record in World War II of the 1st Infantry Division—known as the **"Big Red One"** after its shoulder sleeve insignia—only added to the already considerable laurels of the oldest division in the U.S. Army. Initially led by Maj. Gen. Terry de la Mesa Allen and Brig. Gen. Theodore Roosevelt Jr., the president's son, the division made its first combat amphibious landing at Oran in French Algeria as part of Operation Torch. At El Guettar, Tunisia, on 23 March 1943, the "Fighting First" withstood a powerful counterattack by the German *10th Panzer Division*. That afternoon, division intelligence broke the German radio battle code and reported that the enemy would renew the drive at 4:00 p.m. At 4:15, the division broadcast over the German radio battle net, "What the hell are you guys waiting for? We have been ready since 4:00." Thirty minutes later, the Germans did attack, but the division had repulsed them by nightfall. When the II Corps conducted its final offensive in northern Tunisia, the 1st Division often used General Allen's trademark night attacks to break through the rugged mountain terrain. In Sicily, the Big Red One made its second combat amphibious landing. It threw back a counterthrust that threatened to break through to the sea, drove across the island, and finally fought through fierce resistance in the mountains near the northern coast. Under a new leader, Maj. Gen. Clarence R. Huebner, the division conducted its third combat amphibious landing on D-Day, where heroes like Col. George A. Taylor and Capt. Joseph T. Dawson provided the leadership needed for the division to fight its way off the beach. When the First U.S. Army attacked in July near Saint-Lô during Operation Cobra, the motorized 1st Division was part of the exploitation force that broke through the enemy front and paved the way for the drive across France to the German border. Five months later, the division stood like a rock along the northern shoulder of the Bulge, turning back the final German counteroffensive. One of its veterans, Samuel M. Fuller, later directed the epic war film *The Big Red One* (1980), starring Lee Marvin and Mark Hamill.

"Cuidado—Take Care, Bushmasters!", H. Charles McBarron Jr., 1994
(*Army Art Collection*)

In the World War II Army, the 158th Infantry, Arizona National Guard, was unique. Descended from the 1st Arizona Volunteer Infantry of the Civil War era, the regiment consisted of Mexican-American soldiers and representatives from twenty Native American tribes. It formed part of the 45th Infantry Division when that unit went on active duty in 1940, but after Pearl Harbor, it went to the Panama Canal Zone as a separate regiment. There, it conducted security patrols and helped with jungle warfare training. It also adopted the nickname **Bushmasters** after the venomous snake that inhabited the region. In January 1943, the regiment deployed to Australia. After a period of security duty, it entered combat for the first time at the end of the year near Arawe, New Britain, as part of MacArthur's New Guinea campaign. Through the spring of 1944, the Bushmasters participated in hard fighting in New Guinea, killing an estimated 920 Japanese soldiers but losing 330 of their own. Joining MacArthur's return to Luzon, Philippines, in January 1945, the Bushmasters took heavy casualties in attacks against dug-in Japanese troops along the Damortis-Rosario Road. In "Two-Gun Valley," Company G earned the Presidential Unit Citation for capturing 2 Japanese howitzers and killing 164 enemy troops. In April, the regiment advanced through Luzon's Bicol Peninsula as part of the overall objective of clearing the Visayan Sea passage through the central islands of the Philippines. It completed its Pacific odyssey by landing in Yokohama in October 1945 to participate in the occupation of Japan. General MacArthur would later say of the Bushmasters, "No greater fighting combat team has ever deployed for battle."

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